

EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS OF AND MOTIVES FOR COMPLYING WITH CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY: THE MODERATING ROLE OF CULTURAL VALUES

BY

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THESIS

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ABSTRACT

Since managers in multinational organizations seek to transfer organizational practices across cultures by adapting them to different institutional environments, the extent to which individual differences in cultural values affect the effect of those practices on motivation to engage in socially responsible behavior becomes an important research question. A theoretical model is suggesting that individual differences in cultural values affect the strength of the relationship between CSR perceptions and employees' motives toward socially responsible behavior, and how CSR motivation affects socially responsible behaviors (i.e., behaviors reflecting employees' concerns that extend beyond the organization's economic goals, such as citizenship behavior). Survey data were collected from working adults in Germany and Egypt. Results indicated a moderating effect of individual differences in collectivism (but not power distance) on the relationship between CSR perceptions and CSR motivation. Further, CSR motivation predicted citizenship and engagement (but not turnover or sabotage).

To my parents and siblings, the best people in my life.

*To EGYPT, the best home and kindest people.
To them I send my best wishes of a better and prosperous future.*

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CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Background and Introduction

As Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) generally refers to the social and environmental consciousness of the firm, CSR has been identified as a macro-level activity that has macro level consequences (Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003). CSR is often viewed as an organizational-level construct and has often been addressed by an economic approach (Friedman, 1962; Henderson, 2001), such as research that considers the link between firm social performance and firm economic performance (Margolis & Elfenbein, 2007).

No unique definition of CSR has emerged in last few decades that can be used for all purposes (Rahman, 2011). Several definitions of CSR imply corporate engagement with society referring to one process by which an organization expresses and develops its ‘corporate culture’ and social consciousness (Rupp, Ganapathi, Aguleria, & Williams, 2006). CSR is also defined as activities, decisions, or policies that ‘organizations’ engage in in order to effect positive social change and environment sustainability (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007), as well as the firm’s considerations of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm to accomplish social and environmental benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks (Davis & Blomstrom, 1971). Various definitions of CSR cover various dimensions including economic development, ethical practices, environmental protection, stakeholders involvement, transparency, accountability, responsible behavior, moral obligation, corporate responsiveness and corporate social responsibility (Rahman, 2011).

Formal writings in CSR have been most evident in the United States and are largely a product of the 20th century starting around the 1950s with the publication of Bowen's book **Social Responsibilities of Businessmen** emphasizing firms' obligation to society. Early definitions focused on decisions and actions taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm's direct economic or technical interest (Davis, 1960), and mostly involved corporate philanthropy and community relations. In the 1960s the focus shifted on the relationship between corporation and society and in the 1970s, the literature on CSR developed considerably, incorporating stakeholders involvement, citizens well-being, etc. Contemporary perspectives on CSR recognized the close relationships between the corporation and society and realized that such relationships must be kept in mind by top managers as the corporation and its stakeholders. At that time employee volunteerism also became a focus of study (Jones, 1980). It was argued that the prime motivation of the business firm is utility maximization; that the enterprise seeks multiple goals rather than only profit maximization profits (Johnson, 1971; Walton, 1967). As business was asked to assume broader responsibilities to society than ever before and to serve a wider range of human values, business enterprises were being asked to contribute more to the quality of citizens life by not only supplying quantities of goods and services, but also being good neighbors. Therefore, the social contract between business and society has changed significantly, where the focus is no longer dependent only on the interests of shareholders, but also stakeholders.

In the 1980s, discussions concerning the definition of CSR declined, and were replaced with attempts to measure CSR and expand its nomological network. For example, four domains of CSR were identified under Carroll's model: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary (voluntary or philanthropic) expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time (Carroll, 1979). Afterwards these dimensions were related to the CSR principles of social legitimacy (institutional level), public responsibility (organizational level), and managerial discretion (individual level).

In the 1990s, the CSR concept transitioned significantly to alternative themes such as stakeholder theory, business ethics theory, corporate social performance, and corporate citizenship. Models of CSR incorporate dimensions such as stakeholders involvement; obligation to society; environmental stewardship; and people, planet and profit. The new millennium witnessed measurement initiatives as well as theoretical developments. The literature of 21st century focused on the integration of social and environmental concern; voluntariness; ethical behaviour; economic development; improving the quality of life of the citizens; human rights; labour rights; protection of environment; fights against corruption; transparency and accountability (Rahman, 2011). This period also witnessed a debate involving the extent to which corporations operating in developing countries have CSR obligations (Jamali and Miurshak, 2007). It was an era of an emerging CSR industry as large corporations started having CSR departments and hiring CSR Managers and CSR consultants.

1.2. From Organizational-Level to Employee-Level Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

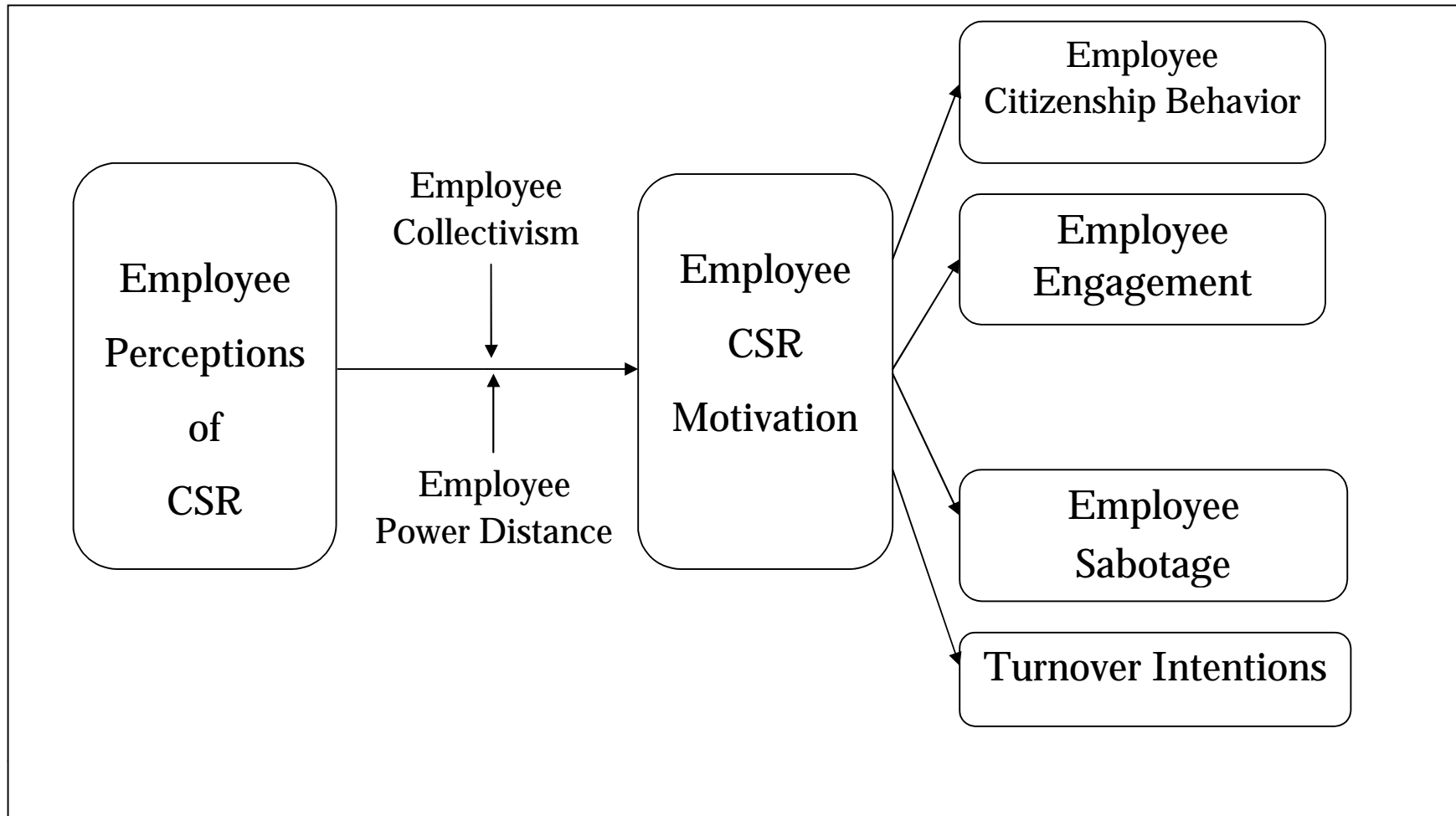
The CSR literature has only just begun to consider individual-level psychological variables involved in processes by which employees and managers perceive, are motivated by, and react to the social responsibility of their employers. As it is individuals who ultimately make decisions on behalf of the organization, and evaluate and respond to organizational decisions (Kelman, 2006), and as it is individual employees, as members of organizations, who engage in, contribute to, and comply with an organization's evolving social consciousness, research of late has been directed toward bridging the macro concept of CSR with micro research to overcome the limited attention CSR has received within the micro organizational behavior literature (Aguinis, 2011). One such stream of research within this domain has advocated for the consideration of employee motivation for engaging in CSR

(Rupp, Williams, & Aguilera, 2011), with motivation representing a well established field of research within organizational psychology (Chen, Kanfer, & Pritchard, 2008).

Following the suggestions of Rupp et al. (2011), the current study looks to self determination theory, a predominant theory of motivation, to build hypotheses around employee-level CSR phenomena. By integrating research on self determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) with that conducted within cross-cultural psychology (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998), we propose a model whereby perceptions of CSR practices interact with cultural values (namely collectivism and power distance) to influence employees' intrinsic motivation for corporate social responsibility. We then seek to show how CSR intrinsic motivation impacts employee-level social responsibility, which we define as employees' concern for the social responsible goals of the firm that reach beyond its economic goals. In our test of the model, we measure employee citizenship, engagement, sabotage, and turnover intentions. Although these are not direct measures of employee social responsibility, we use them to provide preliminary tests of our theoretical ideas. We are interested in exploring CSR from an employee's perspective, considering employees' perceptions of, and compliance with initiatives that lie beyond the instrumental needs of the firm, to most effectively foster positive human potential and constructive social development, to the extent that socially responsible behavior becomes hedonic and internally regulated/self-determined.

Our theoretical model is presented in Figure 1. In the following sections, we will review the literature drawn upon to form the hypotheses comprising this model.

Figure 1: The moderating role of individual-level cultural values on the relationship between CSR perceptions and CSR motivation, and the effect of CSR motivation on employee-level social responsibility



1.3. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Work Motivation

Within the field of motivated or regulated behavior in general and work motivation specifically, many theories have been greatly influenced by the cybernetic approach (e.g., Miller, Galanter, and Pribram, 1960) and the expectancy–valence approach (e.g., Atkinson, 1964; Vroom, 1964) that falls within the cognitive tradition of Lewin (1936) and Tolman (1932). The most common aspect to most of them is that motivation is treated as a unitary concept that may be determined by various factors.

Porter and Lawler (1968) advocated structuring the work environment so that effective performance would lead to both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, which would in turn produce optimal job satisfaction. This was to be accomplished for example, by enlarging jobs to make them more interesting, and thus more intrinsically rewarding, or by making extrinsic rewards such as higher pay and promotions clearly contingent upon effective performance. This additivity hypothesis was greatly controversial as research found that tangible extrinsic rewards undermined intrinsic motivation whereas verbal rewards enhanced it (Deci, 1971). This implied that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be both positively and negatively interactive rather than additive. Self Determination Theory focuses on the types of motivation along a continuum ranging from autonomous on the one side to controlled on the other. Research has found that whereas autonomous motivation facilitates effective performance and well-being, controlled motivation can detract from those outcomes, particularly if the task requires creativity, cognitive flexibility, or deep processing of information. (Marylene & Deci, 2005).

SDT is considered one of the most influential recent theories of human motivation that helps not only in finding the causes of human behavior but also speaks to the design of social environments that optimize people's development, performance, and well-being. On the one hand,

SDT considers the causes of intrinsic motivation as a natural process and an evolved propensity (Ryan et al., 1997); and addresses the processes through which non-intrinsically motivated behaviors can become truly self-determined by meeting people's psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness to most effectively foster positive human potential and constructive social development (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). On the other hand, SDT suggests the ways in which the social environment influences those processes, by identifying aspects of the social environment, including contextual aspects that can be characterized as autonomy supportive, controlling, or amotivating.

When used in organizational theories, the concept of psychological needs have typically been treated as individual differences, where needs differ in terms of the strength that people have for them. Therefore, to predict motivation, job satisfaction and related work outcomes, the strength of the need is assessed and used either directly or in interaction with job characteristics (e.g., Hackman & Lawler, 1971; McClelland & Burnham, 1976). However, SDT provides a different definition of needs. Needs, in general, are defined as universal necessities and important for all individuals, whose satisfaction promotes and, when thwarted, undermines psychological health. Therefore, they are essential for optimal human development and integrity. Basic psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy are considered “nutriments,” which social environments impact by becoming autonomy supportive, controlling, or amotivating (Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, & Deci, 1996). Therefore, SDT research focuses not on the consequences of the strength of those needs for different individuals, but rather on the consequences of the extent to which individuals are able to satisfy the needs within social environments. Although the current study acknowledges the universality of these needs, and the importance of considering how social contexts nurture or thwart their attainment, we also argue for individual differences in cultural values as having both an individual- and contextual-level influence on the self determination phenomena. We feel by

integrating aspects of self determination and cross-cultural theories, we are presented with a more complete picture of employee-level CSR phenomena across cultural domains.

Autonomy is a context where individuals have discretion over their environments. SDT shows that external reward and punishment structure can thwart individuals' pursuit of activities for their intrinsic value, the so called "crowding out" problem (Gneezy and Rustichini, 2000b). Competence induces feeling of efficacy in the individuals influenced by the social context. Typically such contexts provide mechanisms for receiving feedback, involve open communication, provide individuals with a sense of control, and bestow rewards as incentives. Perceptions of autonomy and competence should closely interact with one another to enhance well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). That is, higher levels of perceived competence will not lead to greater well-being unless the behavior is perceived as self-determined (e.g., Ryan et al., 1983). Relatedness refers to elements of the environment that allow individuals to develop a secure relationship with (in the case of CSR and work motivation) the organization. Tyler (1992) has argued that people's compliance with rules is influenced by the extent to which they feel a sense of psychological identification with their employer. Findings shows that one's social environment exerts a strong effect on subsequent intrinsic motivation, with those more "securely attached" holding more positive views of both themselves and their employer, and showing heightened well-being as a result of this relationship.

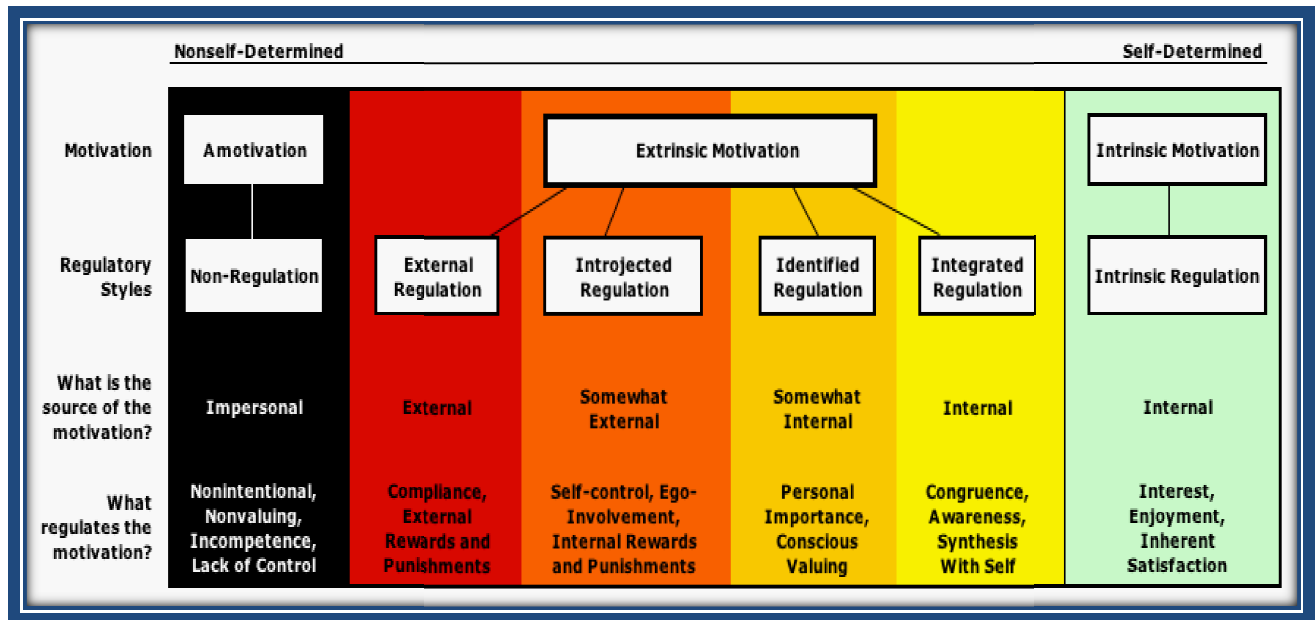
The work of Deci and Ryan (1985) has gone a long way to illustrate sources of both alienation and liberation, suggesting that social environments can facilitate or preclude intrinsic motivation by supporting versus thwarting people's innate psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. It suggests that people will be intrinsically motivated only for activities that hold intrinsic interest for them, activities that have the appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value. Some external factors such as tangible rewards, deadlines (Amabile, DeJong, & Lepper, 1976),

surveillance (Lepper & Greene, 1975), and evaluations (Smith, 1975) tend to diminish feelings of autonomy, prompt a change in perceived locus of causality (PLOC) from internal to external (deCharms, 1968; Heider, 1958), and undermine intrinsic motivation. Other external factors such as providing choice about aspects of task engagement tend to enhance feelings of autonomy, prompt a shift in PLOC from external to internal, and increase intrinsic motivation (Zuckerman et al., 1978).

To respond to the controversial claims regarding this undermining effect to the intrinsic motivation such as those by Eisenberger and Cameron (1996), a comprehensive meta-analysis by Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) confirmed that all expected tangible rewards made contingent on task performance do reliably undermine intrinsic motivation. Additionally, as found by Ryan, Mims, and Koestner (1983), when rewards were contingent on high quality performance and the interpersonal context was supportive rather than pressuring, tangible rewards enhanced intrinsic motivation relative to a comparison condition with no rewards and no feedback.

However, this seemed to imply that managers and management theorists would have to focus on either promoting intrinsic motivation through participation and empowerment while minimizing the use of extrinsic factors or, alternatively, on using rewards and other extrinsic contingencies to maximize extrinsic motivation while ignoring the importance of intrinsic motivation (Marylene & Deci, 2005). In 1985, Ryan, Connell, and Deci addressed these critiques by presenting five classifications of motivated behavior and the contextual factors that either promote or hinder internalization and integration of the regulation of these behaviors. These classifications are illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Self Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development and Well-Being based on Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L (2000)



Along a continuum showing types of motivation with their regulatory styles and loci of causality, Deci and colleagues distinguished between amotivation (i.e., lack of motivation), which involves not having an intention to act, and motivation involving intentionality. Amotivation results from not valuing an activity (Ryan, 1995), not feeling competent to do it (Bandura, 1986), or not expecting it to yield a desired outcome (Seligman, 1975).

The term extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome. Unlike some perspectives that view extrinsically motivated behavior as invariantly non- autonomous, SDT proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in its relative autonomy (Ryan & Connell, 1989; Vallerand, 1997), where extrinsically motivated behaviors cover the continuum between amotivation and intrinsic motivation. Therefore, within motivation, SDT distinguishes between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation.

Autonomous motivation includes intrinsic motivation, which means being motivated by one's interest and integrated extrinsic motivation, which means that the value and regulation of the activity have been integrated within one's self (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Controlled motivation consists of external regulation and introjected extrinsic motivation. Thus, the degree of one's controlled motivation reflects the degree to which one feels coerced by external contingencies or by their introjected counterparts. A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation is regulation through identification. Identification reflects a conscious valuing of a behavioral goal or regulation, such that the action is accepted or owned as personally important.

Internalization refers to people's "taking in" a value or regulation, and integration refers to the further transformation of that regulation into their own so that, subsequently, it will emanate from their sense of self. Given the significance of internalization for personal experience and behavioral outcomes, the main focus of SDT is how to promote autonomous regulation for extrinsically motivated behaviors, by identifying the social conditions that nurture versus inhibit internalization and integration.

Drawing on that, contexts can yield external regulation if there are salient rewards or threats and the person feels competent enough to comply; contexts can yield introjected regulation if a relevant reference group supports the activity and the person feels competent and related. Because extrinsically motivated behaviors are not typically interesting, the primary reason people initially perform such actions is because the behaviors are prompted, modeled, or valued by significant others to whom they feel (or want to feel) attached or related. This suggests that relatedness, the need to feel belongingness and connectedness with others, is centrally important for internalization. The relative internalization of extrinsically motivated activities is also a function of perceived

competence. People are more likely to adopt activities that relevant social groups value when they feel efficacious with respect to those activities (Vallerand, 1997).

Contexts can yield autonomous regulation only if they are autonomy supportive, thus allowing the person to feel competent, related, and autonomous. The experience of autonomy facilitates internalization and, in particular, is a critical element for integration. Autonomy-supportive contexts are those that provide choice and opportunity for self-direction and a minimal amount of pressured evaluations, imposed goals, and demands. Therefore, when people experience satisfaction of the needs for relatedness and competence with respect to a behavior, they will tend to internalize its value and regulation, but the degree of satisfaction of the need for autonomy is what distinguishes whether identification or integration, rather than just introjection, will occur.

This process of internalization and integration may occur in stages, over time, but not in an incremental way, as people can relatively readily internalize a new behavioral regulation at any point along this continuum depending on both prior experiences and current situational factors (Ryan, 1995). Due to both the social development and maturity of people, and because over time, patterns of attachment and identification emerge as individuals form attitudes toward and perceive social contracts with their organizations, individuals may apply varying levels of moral reasoning to their decisions of whether or not to comply with social influence. In addition, the range of behaviors that can be assimilated to the self increases over time with increased cognitive capacities and ego development (Loevinger & Blasi, 1991). The advantages of greater internalization are multiple, including more behavioral effectiveness, greater volitional persistence, enhanced subjective well-being, and better assimilation of the individual within his or her social group (Ryan et al., 1997).

Individual's level of motivation along the continuum described above has been assessed by Ryan and Connell using a family of questionnaires that inquire about individuals' reasons for doing

particular behaviors that are relevant to the situation being researched (e.g., quitting smoking, obeying teachers, complying with doctors' orders, engaging in pro-social behaviors, exercising, engaging in religious activities) . In these questionnaires, participants are presented with various reasons for doing the behaviors (Ryan & Connell, 1989). For our current study, we used a similar measure (Rupp, Skarlicki, Shao, 2011), assessing individual's motivation for engaging in socially responsible behavior at work. In this measure employees are presented with a set of questions with various reasons for why they comply with, advocate for, report violations of and encourage subordinates to comply with social and environmental policies. The questionnaire is scored such that a high score indicates standing on the intrinsic side of the continuum. As we will explain below, we believe that the environment for CSR that employees perceive will influence their level of intrinsic motivation for supporting CSR activities. We further believe that CSR intrinsic motivation will influence employees' subsequent attitudes and behaviors.

1.4. Self Determination Theory and CSR Motivations

Drawing on SDT, the optimal human condition is one where individuals feel both a sense of motivation, growth and responsibility. However, in some contexts optimal motivation and a sense of responsibility can be compromised, leading to rejection of growth and responsibility. The responsible or irresponsible behaviors of individuals does not necessarily reflect differences in personality, genetics, or character, but rather individuals' reactions to their social environments. More specifically, looking at the CSR practices in a firm as an environment characteristic, allows us to consider how employees' make distinct judgments about their employing organization's CSR efforts. The employees' perceptions of a firm's social policies will impact their willingness to participate in, contribute to, and initiate social change initiatives and affect employees' subsequent attitudes and behaviors (Rupp, et al., 2006). In other words, an SDT perspective on CSR would

argue that the level of social responsibility inherent in employees' behavior will be influenced by the extent to which the social context of CSR makes employees feel that their socially responsible behaviors are self-determined. Accordingly, the optimal context that would motivate and internalize socially responsible behavior among employees would not only give employees a sense of competence, relatedness, and autonomy, but would also motivate them to promote social responsibility throughout the organization, and be good citizens themselves. We argue that a firm that is seen as having strong norms for responsibility, with a wide CSR portfolio, and a large number of CSR activities that employees can both influence and participate in will serve to influence the intrinsic motivation of employees to be socially responsible at work and have interests in promoting more than only the financial goals of the firm.

Hypothesis 1: The perceptions/evaluations of CSR policies will have a main effect on the extent to which individuals are intrinsically motivated to engage in socially responsible behavior.

We further argue that this CSR intrinsic motivation created via employees' perceptions of CSR, will further manifest itself in positive attitudes and behaviors that are related to issues beyond organization's economic goals. Specifically:

Hypothesis 2: CSR intrinsic motivation will exert a main effect on employees' citizenship behavior, work engagement, sabotage and turnover intentions.

Referring to the above literature, we generally expect that the CSR practices in place drive CSR motives and that the CSR motives influence subsequent outcomes. However, we recognize that the effects of CSR perceptions on CSR motives may be influenced by cultural values. The field of cross-cultural psychology is especially relevant here in that it is rich with theory regarding how the

social context affects perceptual and behavioral processes. In the following section, we consider the moderating role of culture in the CSR perceptions-CSR motives relationship.

1.5. Culture, Cultural Values and CSR Motivations

1.5.1 Definition and Characteristics of Culture

Culture includes not only the ongoing practices and behaviors within an organization or region, but also the values or strongly held beliefs of how individuals expect their culture to be. The Hofstede cultural value dimensions include individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term/short-term orientation (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Although McSweeney (2002) criticized the data that Hofstede obtained from IBM employees, noting that it cannot represent national cultural values, Williamson (2002) argued that organizational cultures, combined with country cultures, can reflect national culture, and stated that Hofstede's model can explain "relative, not absolute, measures of cultural values" (p. 1,388).

The current study proposes two cultural values as moderators of the CSR perceptions-CSR motivation relationship: power distance and collectivism.

1.5.2 Dimensions of Cultural Values

1.5.2.1 Power/Distance (PD)

In line with Carl et al. (2004), power distance values have been defined as the extent to which societal members believe that power should be concentrated in the hands of only a few people in a culture, and that those people should be obeyed without question and afforded special privileges. This dimension reflects the extent to which a community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges. Two major research streams provide substantial insight into this dimension: Psychology, which has investigated the needs, motivations, and enactment of power,

and sociology, which explored the existence of power distance differences across societies (House & Javidan, 2004).

Power distance (PD) manifests itself in organizations in a number of ways. For example, high PD companies are centralized with strong hierarchies and large gaps in compensation, authority, and respect. The hierarchy that exists between superiors and subordinates is extensive, customary, and legitimate. Therefore, employees often acknowledge a leader's power. Notably, employees will recognize that existing barriers should regulate attempts to form relationships with superiors (Begley et al., 2001). Accordingly, such organization cultures are prone to the manipulative use of power, a lack of equal opportunities for minorities and women, and a lack of personal or professional development within the organization (Carl et al., 2004; Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004). However low PD organizations are often flatter, where supervisors and employees are considered more equals. The use of teamwork is high and decision making involves as many people as possible. People in lower power positions are more likely to believe that they should have voice in decision processes, or at least relatively more than would be the case in high power distance cultures.

We have argued that organizations that are perceived of as having policies in place that encourage CSR, that can allow employees to meet their needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, should lead to an intrinsic motivational manifold surrounding social responsibility. Despite the innate nature of needs, the social context leading can lead some people to develop stronger needs than others, creating individual differences in need attainment. Accordingly, it may be that individual differences in power distance values might place a boundary condition on the internalization of socially responsible behavior by employees. Specifically, we expect the effect of CSR perceptions on CSR intrinsic motivation to be weaker for those who value power distance,

because their autonomy needs are more easily satisfied and accordingly, the autonomy signaled by CSR is less likely to be incorporated into their identity.

This is consistent with research showing low power distance individuals tendency to respond unfavorably to low levels of autonomy. Therefore, their motivation will not reach the integration and internalization level as proposed by SDT, because employees might feel competent but less autonomous to comply with CSR practices. Similar arguments have been made for the role of justice perceptions on outcomes being moderated by power distance. Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, and Jones (in press), for example, showed meta-analytically that justice effects are weaker for those that value power distance. The authors attributed this effect to high power distance individuals having lower needs for control compared to those valuing low power distance.

Hypothesis 3: The effect of the perceptions of CSR practices on CSR motives will be moderated by the cultural values of power distance such that the effect will be weaker for those who more strongly value power distance.

1.5.2.2 Individualism/Collectivism

The individualism and collectivism constructs (Dumont, 1986; Hofstede, 1980; Lukes, 1973) have been discussed in many contexts in the social sciences (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994; Triandis, 1995). Individualists are free from collectivistic obligations, but collectivists live in “a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups” with collectivistic bonds (Hofstede, 2001, p. 225). Within each culture there are individuals who are allocentric, and think and act like people in collectivist cultures, and also idiocentric, and think and act like people in individualist cultures.

An application of high individualism value to organizations implies a high valuation on people's time and their need for freedom and enjoyment of challenges, an expectation of rewards for hard work as well as respect for privacy. This refers to acknowledging accomplishments, not asking for too much personal information and encouraging debate and expression of one's own ideas. However, in low individualism cultures, emphasis is on building skills and becoming masters of something, work for intrinsic rewards and harmony is more important than honesty. This indicates showing respect for age and wisdom, suppressing feelings and emotions to work in harmony and respecting traditions and introducing change slowly.

Individuals that score high on collectivism assume that they are highly interdependent with the organization and believe it is important to make personal sacrifices to fulfill their organizational obligations. Employees tend to develop long-term relationships with employers from recruitment to retirement, and organizations take responsibility for employee welfare. Motivation is socially oriented, and is based on the need to fulfill duties and obligations and to contribute to the group. Organizational commitment is based on expectations of loyalty and in-group attitudes. Pro-social behaviors, or organizational citizenship behavior, are more common. On the other hand, individuals that score high on individualism assume that they are independent of the organization and believe it is important to bring their unique skills and abilities to the organization. Employees develop short-term relationships and change companies at their own discretion. Important decisions tend to be made by individuals. Jobs are designed individually to maximize autonomy. Motivation is individually oriented and is based on individual interests, needs and capacities. Pro-social behaviors, or organizational citizenship behaviors, are less common. Organizational commitment is based on individuals' rational calculations of costs and benefits (House et al., 2004).

This research leads us to expect that individual differences in individualism/collectivism will also moderate the effects of CSR perceptions on CSR intrinsic motivation. Particularly, we predict that CSR effects on motivation will be stronger for individuals who value collectivism, given the relatedness that CSR serves to fulfill, together with the particular importance of relatedness to those high on collectivism especially as they view the self as interdependent with others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Reykowski, 1994). More specifically, they tend to internalize their socially responsible behavior relatively faster (or have more concerns for social responsibility or pro-social behavior) due to the increased feeling of relatedness and as responsibility toward others is part of the self. Similar propositions have been made in the justice literature, by Shao et al. (in press), who showed meta-analytically that reactions to injustice in the workplace were stronger for samples collected in collectivist countries. This leads us to predict the following:

Hypothesis 4: The effect of the perceptions of CSR practices on CSR motives will be moderated by the cultural values of collectivism such that the effect will be stronger for those who more strongly value collectivism.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

2.1. Participants

Our sample consisted of 300 working adults in two countries; Egypt and Germany: The 160 participants from Germany consisted of 85 females (53%). The average age of participants was 39. Participants had an average of four years of college education. The sample consisted of 6% first line supervisors, 20% managers, 13% Executive Company Officers and 60% other positions, spanning the industries of manufacturing, services (such as conselling center and law firm), education, retail, banking, health care, food services, social services, and others. Although the sample was primarily German there were small numbers of participants (i.e., less than five percent) from countries such as USA, UK, Turkey, Syria, Pakistan, India, Spain, and Poland. On average respondents had worked for seven years.

The 140 participants surveyd in Egypt were 89 females (64%). The average age of this sample was 36. Twelve percent of the sample were first line supevisors, 13 % executive company officers, 15% manager and 60% others. These participants had an average of six years of college education. The participants worked in industries such as education, government, retail, manufacturing, health care, banking, food service, social service, services (such as conselling center and law firm), and others. On average, respondents had worked for five years.

2.2. Procedures

During the data collection, there was no inclusion or exclusion criteria, as all employees were invited to participate voluntarily. In Egypt, the co-investigator posted the survey online along with debriefing information and contacted the human resources representatives and employees at several organizations by e-mail such as Alexandria University, Bibliotheca Alexandrina, Unilever, IT-works and Wipro and asked them to participate voluntarily in the study by following a link of the survey posted on a freeonline survey website, expressing again that confidentiality was assured.

Germany, the co-investigator contacted human resources representatives at several companies located in Germany such as Henkel, Deutsche Bahn (German Railways), Fraport (Frankfurt Airport), DAAD (German Academic Exchange Program), Hilton, Schott AG and Opel and sent them the questionnaire with a debriefing, asking them to distribute it randomly on employees in several departments. In addition, the co-investigator contacted participants in the streets, at Frankfurt airport, and in shopping malls. She explained the purpose of the study, asked them if they were willing to participate voluntarily and stressed that confidentiality was guaranteed. For convenience, the survey was also posted online for those participants who didn't have time to fill it out right away. A debriefing was provided either via paper or online.

2.3. Measures

For all the measures, participants were asked to respond to a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree/Seldom) to 7 (Strongly Agree/Often). Items were averaged to form the indices of the variables with larger numbers indicating higher levels.

CSR perceptions were measured using Maignan and Ferrell's (2000) 18-item scale to assess participants' perceptions of the employer's corporate social responsibility. Sample items included

“our business gives adequate contribution to charities” and “a program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials wasted in our business”. The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.77$.

Collectivism was measured using the eight items making up Triandis and Gelfand’s (1998) measure. Sample items include “I feel good when I cooperate with others”, and “the well being of my coworkers is important to me”. The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.86$.

Power Distance was measured via the five items comprising Brockner et al’s (2001) scale. Sample items include “the highest ranking manager in a team should take the lead” and “subordinates should carry out the requests of supervisors without questions”. The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.62$.

CSR motivation was measured using a scale developed by Rupp, Skarlicki, and Shao (2011). The scale was constructed in accordance with self-determination theory, and the catalog of self-regulation questionnaires assembled by Deci and Ryan. Collectively, these measures assess four different types of behavioral regulation, defined in terms of the degree to which the regulation of an extrinsically motivated activity has been internalized and integrated. They are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation, in order from the least to the most fully internalized (http://www.psych.rochester.edu/SDT/measures/SRQ_text.php) (see Ryan & Deci, 2000, for more on this). For this study, we use the scoring rubric that allowed us to calculate employees level of intrinsic motivation for advocating for, complying with, and supporting CSR efforts. The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.87$.

Organizational citizenship behavior was measured using Williams and Anderson’s (1991) five-item scale. Sample items included “I help others who have heavy workloads” and “I adhere to

informal rules devised to maintain order.” The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.65$.

Work Engagement was measured using Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova’s (2006) 17-item scale. Sample items include “at my work, I feel bursting with energy “I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose”, “I am proud of the work that I do” and “it is difficult to detach myself from my job”. The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.96$.

Sabotage was measured using items selected from Skarlicki and Folger (1997) as well as Bennet and Robinson (2000). The scale proposes eight different behaviors as a result of dealing with supervisor over the past six months. Sample items include “intentionally worked slower”, “bad mouthed the supervisor to others, and “refused to work overtime when asked”. The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.88$.

Finally, *Turnover Intentions* was measured using Konovsky and Cropanzano’s (1991) scale, which is comprised of three questions regarding the frequency of engaging in certain actions, e.g., “how likely is it that you will look for a job outside of this organization during the next year?”, “how often do you think about quitting your job at this organization?”: The internal consistency reliability of this scale was $\alpha = 0.87$.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and the alpha reliability coefficients for the variables measured in this study. As predicted, CSR intrinsic motivation was found to be associated with higher levels of work engagement and organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations Among Study Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.Places of data collection	4.47	0.50	-								
2.CSR Perceptions	4.62	1.31	-.14*	(.77)							
3.CSR Motivations	4.16	1.61	.19**	.22**	(.87)						
4.Power Distance	2.96	0.62	.15**	.14*	.29**	(.62)					
5.Collectivism	6.86	1.42	.38**	.19**	.28**	.27**	(.86)				
6.Organizational Citizenship Behavior	4.63	1.15	.18**	.28**	.20**	.16**	.34**	(.65)			
7.Work Engagement	4.56	1.32	.40**	.23**	.41**	.22**	.35**	.36**	(.96)		
8.Sabotage	1.94	0.78	.10	-.26**	-.10	.02	-.30**	-.35**	-.32**	(.88)	
9.Turnover Intentions	4.10	1.94	.30**	-.18**	.01	.02	.09	.04	-.13	-.32**	(.87)

Note. The alpha internal-consistency reliability coefficient appear in parentheses along the main diagonal. A total of 300 employees, 160 in Germany and 140 in Egypt completed the survey. Places of data collection (4=Germany, 5=Egypt).

*p < .05. ** p< .01

To test our hypotheses regarding the moderating role of collectivism and power distance on the relationship between perceptions of CSR practices and CSR motivation, a moderated, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. Results of the regression for the two cultural values are shown in Tables 2 and 3. Specifically, we entered CSR perceptions as the independent variable in the first step and the interaction term (i.e., the product term between CSR perceptions and each of the cultural values, namely Collectivism and Power distance) in the second step.

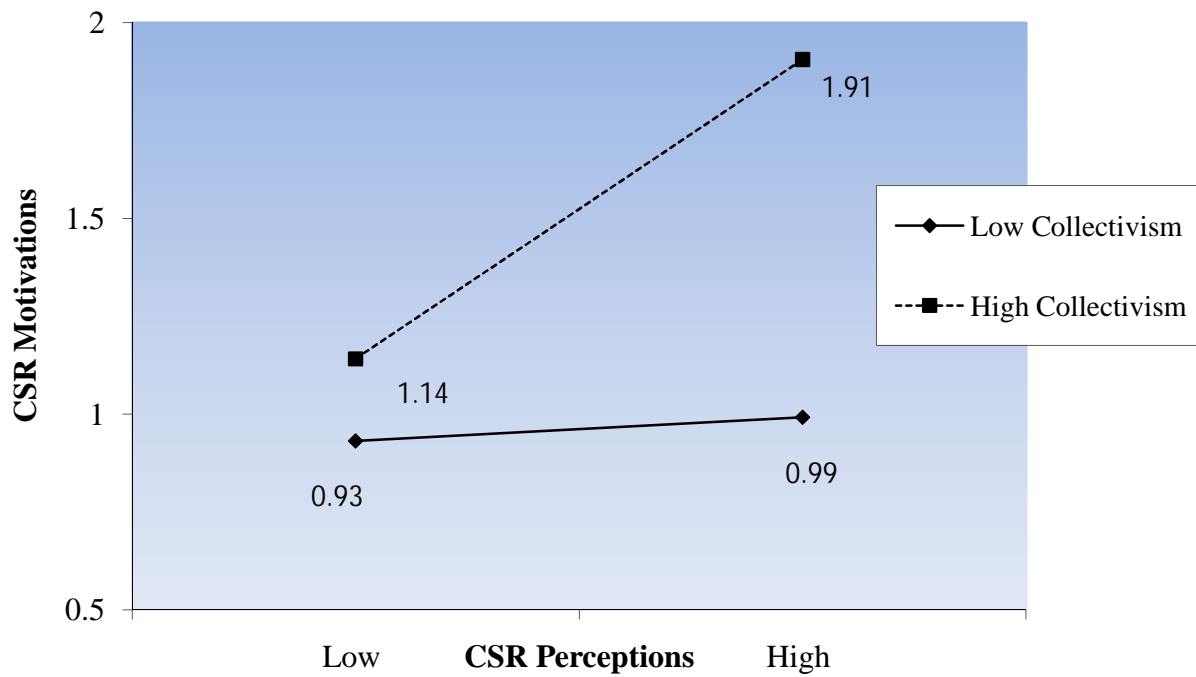
Table 2: **Regression Tests for Moderation of the Cultural Value Collectivism**

Variable	ΔR^2	B	SE b	β	t
Step 1	.10***				
(Constant)		1.29	.50		2.60
Collectivism		.28	.06	.24***	4.32
CSR Perceptions		.21	.07	.17***	3.10
Step2	.01*				
(Constant)		1.20	.50		2.51
Collectivism		.28	.06	.25***	4.44
CSR Perceptions		.21	.07	.17***	2.98
CSR Perceptions X Collectivism		.18	.09	.10*	1.95

* $p < .10$ ** $p < .05$ *** $p < .01$

As is shown in Table 2, we detected a significant effect of CSR practices on CSR intrinsic motivation ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < .01$). In addition, a significant interaction effect between CSR practices and collectivism on CSR intrinsic motivation was found, providing support for Hypothesis 4 ($\beta = .10$, $p < .10$). The nature of this interaction is displayed in Figure 3. As is illustrated, the effect of perceived CSR practices on CSR intrinsic motivation is most pronounced for individuals high on collectivism. For collectivism, the moderated interaction term accounted for an additional 1% of the variance in employees' intrinsic motives.

Figure 3: Plot of interaction between CSR practices and collectivism on employees' CSR Motivations



To test Hypothesis 3, table 3 provides the results for the moderation regression analysis conducted using power distance as the moderator. As is shown, the interaction term did not add to any change to the variance accounted for, perhaps due to the low reliability of the scores on the PD instrument.

Table 3: Regression Tests for Moderation of the Cultural Value Power Distance

Variable	ΔR^2	B	SE b	β	t
Step 1	0.11***				
Constant)		1.10	.50		2.20
CSR Perceptions		.22	.07	.18***	3.16
Power Distance		.70	.14	.27***	4.80
Step 2	.00				
(Constant)		1.16	.51		2.28
CSR Perceptions		.22	.70	.18***	3.16
Power Distance		.68	.15	.26***	4.57
CSR Perceptions X Power Distance		.05	.08	.04	.71

* $p < .10$ ** $p < .05$ *** $p < .01$

Finally, we tested the effect of CSR intrinsic motivation on our outcomes of interest. The results for Hypothesis 2 are provided in Table 4. As is shown, significant effects were found for organizational citizenship behaviors ($\beta=0.41$, $p<0.01$) and work engagement ($\beta=.20$, $p<0.01$), but not for turnover intentions or sabotage.

Table 4: **Regression Results for CSR intrinsic motivations on employees-level outcomes**

Employees outcomes	B	SE b	β	t
1. Work Engagement	.33	.04	.41**	7.74
2. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	.59	.17	.20**	3.47
3. Turnover Intentions	-.01	.04	-.10	-0.17
4. Sabotage	-.23	.22	-.06	-1.01

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the current study are somewhat consistent with the proposal that the effect of employees' CSR perceptions on CSR intrinsic motives would be moderated by culture. More specifically, the results shows that the link between evaluations of CSR practices and employees' motives tend to be stronger for those high at collectivism. We feel that for these individuals, CSR has a particularly salient signaling effect consistent with ones cultural values, and motivates employees via the meeting of their self determination needs, and ultimately, the integrating of socially responsible behavior with the self.

4.1. Study Limitations

However, some limitations might constrain the generalizability of our interpretations and findings. First, the language used in the questionnaire was English, a foreign language for most of our participants. This might increase the probability of misunderstanding and accordingly misresponse to the questions. However, the probability for error was even across the two countires in which we collected data.

Second, because of time limitations, the co-investigator reached the Egyptian participants through e-mails and online-surveys only, compared with the face-to-face interaction in addition to online tools employed in Germany. This might have resulted in relatively less control over the Egyptian sample compared with the German one. However, the co-investigator responded to all inquiries in a timely and prompt manner.

Third, although our theoretical model is focused on CSR perceptions influencing CSR motivation, and ultimately, social responsible attitudes and behavior, we did not measure socially responsible attitude and behavior *per se*. That is, although variables such as citizenship behavior, sabotage, and engagement are related to pro-social behavior, future research should consider measuring ethical behaviors directly. This might include measures of whistle-blowing, reporting wrongdoing, and the like (Miceli, Near, & Dworkin, 2008; Trevino, Reynolds, & Weaver, 2006).

Finally, both our power distance measure, and our OCB measure suffered from internal consistency reliability that was below conventional standards (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Because low reliability attenuates ones ability to detect significant relationships (i.e., increases Type II error rates), our reported results may be conservative due to psychometric limitations. This is coupled with the generally low power of moderation tests (Aguinis & Pierce, 2008). As interaction effects are difficult to detect, it is still quite possible that the cultural value power distance moderates the effect of CSR perceptions on CSR motivation. Future research with more reliable instruments and larger samples is needed to sort out this issue. This is coupled with the need to incorporate a variety of individual, firm-, and industry-level variables in order to more accurately test the predicted effects.

4.2. Suggestions for Future Research

While there are rich case studies describing CSR practices in individual countries (Gill & Leinbach, 1983; Kapelus, 2002; Wokutch, 1990) and studies analyzing the role of CSR in multinational corporations (Donaldson & Dunfee, 1999; Dunning, 2003; Hooker & Madsen, 2004; Logsdon & Wood, 2002; Snider, Paul, & Martin, 2003), little attention has been paid to nations' institutional and cultural effects on CSR efforts (Maignan, 2001, and Maignan & Ralston, 2002). In addition, a major limitation of cross-cultural CSR research is that the vast majority of studies of

motivational processes in work organizations have been conducted in the United States, and most of the others were done in countries that also have democratic governments, privately owned companies, and a relatively strong emphasis on individualism. Therefore, it has been questioned if the dynamics that have been highlighted by motivational theories and research are in fact applicable to other cultures (Deci, Marylène, Leone, Julian, & Kornazheva, 2001).

Moreover, as the CSR literature has just started to consider the individual-level psychology of CSR, our study extends the literature by showing that it is also important to understand how the varying cultural values affect employees' perceptions of and motives for complying with CSR practices. While it was previously argued that the feelings of social responsibility is not a result of differences in personality, genetics, or character, but rather individuals' reactions to their social environment and level of satisfaction of competence, autonomy and relatedness needs, our results showed that individual differences in cultural values might affect the level of satisfaction of those needs and accordingly, the internalization of the CSR motives.

However, as we focused only on two cultural dimensions, more research should be done to include the other values such as uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity and long-term orientation to identify if they have a moderating effect as well. Moreover, our analysis focused only on the interaction between culture and perceptions of CSR on the highest level of internalization of CSR motives, which is the intrinsic one. Because each of the cultural values affects the satisfaction of one or more of the psychological needs, it tends to affect the level of internalization of CSR motives. Therefore, more studies should be done as well to show which cultural values have a more significant moderation effect on which level of motivation from external to introjected. This would help identify the lack of satisfaction of which needs to further support the internalization of socially responsible behavior.

Third, theory development should also consider the interaction among cultural values, i.e. the effect of two or more cultural values as individual differences exist on not only each individual cultural value, but on their cultural value profile. As Shao et al (in press) have shown, these profiles, as well as their effects on outcomes is complex and worthy of consideration. For example, recent research on Korean and U.S. samples has found a more positive relation between autonomy and collectivistic attitudes than between autonomy and individualistic attitudes (Kim, Butzel, & Ryan, 1998). Fourth, qualitative research is needed for deep understanding of how employees perceive, process and react to CSR. Fifth, larger-scale research, incorporating a variety of individual-, firm-, industry-, and country-level control variables is also needed to refine our understanding of these phenomena.

Finally, a question that our data could not answer but might be a direction for future research, is to what extent companies should adapt their CSR practices in order to maximize social responsibility motivation. For example, it has been found that Western CSR concepts do not adapt well to the Chinese market, because they have rarely defined the primary reason for CSR, and the etic approach to CSR concepts does not take the Chinese reality and culture into consideration. Therefore, CSR has been defined in relation to Confucian interpersonal harmony and Taoist harmony between man and nature. Moreover, it has been argued that the significant influence of values in CSR means that the motivating power of CSR can vary depending on different cultures and countries. For example, Boardman and Kato (2003) investigated a traditional Japanese concept, *Kyosei*, to understand culturally specific CSR. As another example, culture and religion are indistinguishable in the Middle East CSR model (Culture and Religion Vital to Middle East CSR model, 2007). On the other hand, a study done on Korean public relations practitioners revealed that, although Hofstede's dimensions significantly affect perceptions of CSR, social traditionalism values had more explanatory power than cultural dimensions in explaining CSR attitudes. The results

suggest a fundamental idea about the corporation's role in society seems to be more important than their cultural values to understand CSR attitudes in Korea. Since social responsibility involves the ethics held in common, people's perceptions of the roles corporations play in terms of social responsibility, of what is considered a responsibility toward others and how they satisfy their needs might differ from a culture to another. Therefore, with the help of future research in the areas suggested above, organizations can consider whether cultural customization of CSR practices is appropriate. However, any comprehensive study on the effect of the cultural adaptations of CSR practices would need to consider cultural at higher levels of analysis (e.g., geographic region, industry, organization), and would need to consider the impact practices might have not only on employees' social responsibility motivation, but also the social responsibility motivation of all stakeholder groups, including top management—a group that wields a great deal of power related to the ethical behavior of firms.

4.3. Conclusion

As culture affects the social environment and represents the fundamental system of meanings shared by members of a specific society, future research in CSR should pay more attention to the how differences in cultural orientations affect people's psychology, perceptions and behaviors. Organizations should also clearly emphasize the importance of those differences while managing their CSR practices in this regard to capitalize on its human capital potential leading to better organizational outcomes.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS OF THE SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

School of Labor and Employment Relation
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
504 E Armory Avenue, Champaign
Illinois 61820 USA



Debriefing

Dear Managers and Employees,

Thank you for participating in this study on corporate social responsibility conducted by Dr. Deborah Rupp and Ms. Sara Salama at the University of Illinois-Urbana-Champaign. The purpose of this research is to study employees' and managers' reactions to issues regarding corporate social responsibility and examine how people from different cultures react to the socially responsible behaviors of their employers.

We invite you to complete the attached survey, which will take 20 minutes of your time, perhaps longer or shorter for some. Your participation is completely voluntary and you can withdraw from this study at any time without any consequences.

All your responses are completely confidential. Results will only be reported in aggregated form.

No individual participant will be identified in any way. We will not mention any information about you and/or your company in any reports resulting from this research.

The results of this research will be used for academic and professional publications or presentations. Information about Corporate Social Responsibility or a summary of the findings of this study will also be made available to all participants if you request it.

Should you have any questions or wish to report a research-related problem, please email Sara Salama at sara.raouf@gmail.com or Deborah Rupp at derupp@uiuc.edu.

Again, we thank you for your participation!

Yours Sincerely,

Deborah E. Rupp

Associate Professor of Labor/Employment Relations, Psychology, and Law
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Please circle a number to indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

In my company:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. We have been successful at maximizing our profits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. We strive to lower our operating costs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. We closely monitor employees' productivity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Top management establishes long-term strategies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The managers comply with the law.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. We seek to comply with all laws regulating hiring and employee benefits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. We have programs that encourage the diversity of our workforce (in terms of age, gender, and race).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Internal policies prevent discrimination in employees' compensation and promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. We have a comprehensive code of conduct.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. We are recognized as a trustworthy company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Fairness toward co-workers and business partners is an integral part of the employee evaluation process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. A confidential procedure is in place for employees to report any misconduct at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Our salespersons and employees are required to provide full and accurate information to all customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Our business supports employees' education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work and personal life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Our business gives adequate contributions to charities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. A program is in place to reduce the amount of energy and materials wasted in our business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. We encourage partnerships with local businesses and schools.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

There are a number of reasons employees and managers comply with and advocate for social and environmental policies. Please indicate how true each of the statements below is for you.

A. Why do I comply with social and environmental policies (i.e., corporate social responsibility initiatives)?

	I don't do this	Not at all true			Somewhat true			Very true
1. Because I want the organization to think I'm a good employee.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Because I'll get in trouble if I don't.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Because it's fun.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Because I will feel bad about myself if I don't.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Because I want to learn more about the interplay of business and society.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Because that's what I'm supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because I enjoy it.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Because it's important to me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B. Why do I advocate for social and environmental policies?

	I don't do this	Not at all true			Somewhat true			Very true
1. So that my superiors will not evaluate me negatively.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Because I want my superiors to think well of me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Because I want to learn about new ways of managing.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Because I'll be ashamed of myself if I don't.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Because it's fun.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Because that's the rule.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because I enjoy doing it.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Because it's important to me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C. Why do I report violations of social and environmental policies?

	I don't do this	Not at all true			Somewhat true			Very true
1. Because I want the others to think I am a good employee.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Because I feel ashamed of myself if I don't.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Because I enjoy these sorts of challenges.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Because that's what I'm supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Because it is important to determine if actions are right or wrong.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Because it's rewarding to face these challenges.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because it's important to me to have high standards.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Because I want my superiors to champion for me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

D. Why do I encourage my subordinates to comply with social and environmental policies?

	I don't do this	Not at all true			Somewhat true			Very true
1. Because that's what I'm supposed to do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. So my superiors will think I'm a good employee.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Because I enjoy it.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Because I will get in trouble if I don't.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Because I'll feel really bad about myself if I don't.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Because it's important to me to do this.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Because I will feel really proud of myself if I do this.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Because my superiors might reward me for doing so.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please circle the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Never (Never)	A few times a year or less (Almost Never)	Once a month or less (Rarely)	A few times a month (Sometimes)	Once a week (Often)	A few times a week (Very Often)	Every day (Always)
1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Time flies when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. To me, my job is challenging.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I get carried away when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Over the past six months as a result of dealing with YOUR SUPERVISOR, you have:

	Never	Seldom	A few times	Often	Frequently
1. Intentionally worked slower.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Reduced effort into your work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Spoke poorly about the company to others.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bad mouthed the supervisor to others.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Neglected to follow your supervisor's instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Called in sick when not ill.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Tried to look busy while wasting time.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refused to work overtime when asked.	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the frequency that you engage in the following actions:

	Never						Always
1. I assist my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I help others who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I go out of way to help new employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I complain about insignificant things at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please circle the frequency that you engage in the following actions:

	Very Unlikely (Never)						Very Likely (Very Often)
1. How likely is it that you will look for a job outside of this organization during the next year?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How often do you think about quitting your job at this organization?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. If it were possible, how much would you like to get a new job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please circle the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Subordinates should not express their disagreement with their supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The highest ranking manager in a team should take the lead.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Subordinates should carry out the requests of supervisors without question.	1	2	3	4	5
4. In work-related matters, supervisors have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Subordinates should highly respect their supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I often have the feeling that my relationships with others are more important than my own accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I should take into consideration my parents' advice when making education/career plans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Even when I strongly disagree with group members, I avoid an argument.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I'd rather say "No" directly, than risk being misunderstood.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I act the same way no matter who I am with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please circle the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	never or definitely no								always or definitely yes
1. I'd rather depend on myself than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. I rely on myself most of the time; I rarely rely on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. I often do "my own thing".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. It is important that I do my job better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Winning is everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Competition is the law of nature.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. When another person does better than I do, I get tense and irritated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. If a coworker gets a prize, I would feel proud.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. The well-being of my coworkers is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. To me, pleasure is spending time with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. I feel good when I cooperate with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Parents and children must stay together as much as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

14. It is my duty to take care of my family, even when I have to sacrifice what I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Family members should stick together, no matter what sacrifices are required.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. It is important to me that I respect the decisions made by my groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

General Information:

1. When did you join this company? Please indicate the month, and year. (e.g., September 2005)	_____	_____
2. Current Position:		
1) First line supervisor	2) Manager	3) Executive/Company officer
4) Others (please specify _____)	_____	
3. Gender (M/F): _____		
4. Year you were born: _____		
5. Country of origin: _____		
6. What kind of organization do you work in? (Please circle one)		
1) Educational Institution		
2) Government Agency		
3) Retail		
4) Manufacturing		
5) Health Care		
6) Banking		
7) Food Industry (e.g. restaurant)		
8) Social service agency		
9) Service company (counselling center, law firm)		
10) Others (please specify _____)		
1. What is your highest level of education:		
Schule	Ausbildung	Diploma
		Bachelor degree
		Master's degree
		PhD

Do you have any comments you would like to offer? _____

AUTHOR'S BIOGRAPHY

Sara Salama is a Research and Teaching Assistant at the Business Administration Department at Faculty of Commerce-Alexandria University, Egypt since 2007. She graduated from Alexandria University with a bachelor degree with honor in Business Administration in 2006. She worked during her undergrad years and upon graduation as sales and marketing coordinator, executive secretary and customer service representative. In 2009, she received Fulbright scholarship and started her Master's degree in Human Resources Management at the School of Labor & Employment Relations at the University of Illinois-Urbana Champaign. During that time, she worked as a lab coordinator at Professor's Rupp lab at the Department of Psychology. Her areas of interest are motivation, leadership and emotions at the workplace.